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DROUGHT AND ACIDIFICATION OF A MINEROTROPHIC CONIFER SWAMP ON THE PRECAMBRIAN SHIELD, CANADA

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ABSTRACT

A seven year budget of a minerotrophic conifer swamp subjected to anthropogenically acidified deposition is presented. Contrary to other published studies, this swamp retains sulphate during wet years and exports it during dry years. Base cations are almost always exported. It is predicted that if this pattern continues, the cation exchange sites of the swamp will become increasingly saturated with protons and aluminum ions, and the waters passing through the swamp will be increasingly acidified.



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INTRODUCTION

Minerotrophic conifer swamps are common peatlands on the Precambrian Shield in Canada, with important impacts on down-stream and lake chemistry (Gorham et al. 1984; Dillon & LaZerte 1992). Recently there has been a resurgence of interest in the impact of peatlands on water chemistry (Gorham et al. 1984; Bayley et al. 1986; Bayley et al. 1987; DeVito et al. 1989; Urban et al. 1989a; DeVito & Dillon 1992). Traditional minerotrophic swamp inputs are non-acidic, however when the surrounding uplands have been anthropogenically acidified, elevated inputs of protons, aluminum and sulphate are introduced into the swamp. How peatlands transform and/or retain these compounds and their impact on other peatland processes is an important subject of study (Gorham et al. 1984). Also of interest is how climatic conditions, in particular the amount of rainfall, affect this transformation and/or retention in peatlands (Gorham et al. 1984).

Detailed long-term chemistry and input-output budgets are provided here for a representative minerotrophic conifer swamp (Pc 1) on the PreCambrian Shield in the Muskoka-Haliburton area of Ontario. Previous studies of this swamp have examined the hydrology (Shibitani 1988; Wels & DeVito 1989), paleoecology (Warner et al. 1992), the transformation of nutrients from inorganic to organic forms (DeVito et al. 1989; Devito & Dillon 1992) and the retention of as well as transformation to organic form of some metals (Al, Pb, Cu; LaZerte 1989; LaZerte et al. 1989; LaZerte 1991). Kirchner et al. (1992; Figure 1) have described the effect of drought on the swamp's outflow chemistry in the

context of testing a geochemical model of stream chemistry. The hydrology and geochemistry of the surrounding uplands have also been analyzed (Wels et al. 1991; Kirkwood & Nesbitt 1991; Law 1991; Dillon & LaZerte 1992). DeVito and Dillon (1992) examine the role of hydrology on phosphorus and nitrogen dynamics in the Pc 1 conifer swamp. In this study, the role of hydrology (low swamp water level in particular) and upland acidification on the net retention of the base cations, sulphate, aluminum species and alkalinity is determined.

METHODS

The Muskoka-Haliburton region is located on a southern extension of the Pre-Cambrian Shield in Central Ontario. The sensitivity of this area to acidic deposition, coupled with the relatively high historical deposition of acidity have made the Muskoka-Haliburton region one of the most acidified in Ontario (Neary & Dillon 1988). Precipitation depth in the Muskoka-Haliburton area averages about 1 m/yr (Dillon et al. 1988) with maximum precipitation depth usually in the fall (September to November) and minimum in the summer (June to August). Winter (December to February) precipitation accumulates as snow pack until spring (March-May) snowmelt.

The interior of the three largest basins draining into Plastic Lake is dominated by conifer swamps, of which the Plastic 1 (Pc 1) swamp and sub-catchment are the largest (Figure 1). The upland soils of the Pc 1 catchment surrounding the swamp are sandy, shallow (~0.5 m)

podzols underlain by granitic gneiss and amphibolite (Lozano 1987; Kirkwood & Nesbitt 1991; Law 1991). The upland forest cover is dominated by white pine, hemlock and soft maple. The conifer swamp soils are peaty, organic mucks and gleysols (mean depth 2-3 m; 7 m max. depth) dominated by white cedar and black spruce with sphagnum sp. as the dominant ground cover (Lozano & Parton 1986; DeVito 1989).

For the purposes of this study, the Pc 1 basin above the swamp outflow (Pc 1-03) has been subdivided into three different sub-basins draining into the swamp itself (Figure 1). The surveyed areas (ha) are:

Pc 1-08	3.22
Pc 1-04	5.29
Other uplands	9.46
Swamp	<u>2.12</u>
Pc 1-03 (Total)	20.09

Of the three areas that drain into the swamp, Pc 1-08 is unique in that it has a fairly long, steadily descending reach with few ponding or wetland areas. The underlying bedrock forms a narrow notch just before entering the conifer swamp which concentrates the water flux and is the weir location. Of all the surface inflows to the swamp, Pc 1-08 discharges the greatest amount over the longest period of time. Chemical data from Pc 1-08 is available from March 1983. Discharge data is available from December 1986; prior to that, discharge must

be estimated by areal pro-rating discharge at Pc 1, a weir 50 m downstream from the swamp outflow.

The Pc 1-04 sub-basin is larger than Pc 1-08. The headwaters of this sub-basin are a small alder swamp that drains across the top of the catchment and cascades down into the main swamp at several locations. All possible sampling sites flow erratically and represent only a small portion of the total flow from this sub-basin. For chemical sampling, a site was chosen that appears to have the greatest flow but a weir was not installed. Hydrological discharge from this area is computed by areal pro-rating of the discharge from Pc 1-08 or Pc 1 (prior to December 1986 only). Chemical data from Pc 1-04 is available from March 1983.

The largest contributor to the Pc 1 conifer swamp is not channelized or surface flow at all, but macropore flow along the bedrock soil interface. The porous, sandy upland soils allow rapid vertical permeation of snowmelt and rainfall down to the bedrock interface. This is followed by gravitational, macropore flow along the bedrock soil/interface down to the swamp (Shibitani 1988; Wels et al. 1991). Areal pro-rating of the discharge from Pc 1-08 or Pc 1 (prior to December 1986 only) is used to estimate the hydrological discharge from these areas.

There are several possible estimates of the chemistry of the unchannelized macropore flow into the swamp:

- i) Samples collected at Pc 1-04 can be used. However, because of the headwaters swamp in Pc 1-04, these samples contain somewhat elevated amounts of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) relative to Pc 1-08 and ground water samples.
- ii) Pc 1-08 is more representative of groundwater flux than Pc 1-04, as its DOC levels are more typical of ground water samples. However, inorganic aluminum can drop significantly in the Pc 1-08 stream bed (LaZerte 1989).
- Perhaps the best choice is to use ground water samples collected from 12 lysimeter pits installed in the northern section of the Pc 1 catchment (Figure 1). Although the pits are not randomly distributed about the ungauged portion of the catchment, their locations are representative of typical soil conditions in the catchment: there is as much variation in soil properties within the Pc 1-08 sub-basin as there is across all the upland soils of the Pc 1 catchment (Lozano 1987). As soil water chemistry changes dramatically with depth (LaZerte 1989), the samples used here are only those relatively uniform (over both time and space) samples collected deep in the mineral soil horizon (usually a Bf2 horizon) close to the bedrock interface. Only the four most recent years of data are available from these pits, so for longer term analysis (including all graphs), Pc 1-08 data is used.

The final input to the Pc 1 conifer swamp is direct precipitation to its surface. Although this forms a relatively small proportion of all inputs (only 10.6% by area), it can be an important

contributor during the summer when other inputs are dry. A bulk deposition collector and meteorological site located in the Plastic Lake catchment provide weekly chemistry and daily precipitation depth (OME 1990). Data from this site is available from December 1983. Earlier data (March to December 1983) is obtained from a similar site located within 15 km. The bulk collectors used at these sites appear to give good estimates of both wet and dry deposition of sulphate (Dillon et al. 1988). Two empirical models were calibrated against three years of snowpack monitoring in Pc 1 catchment (Findeis et al. 1989) to account for the substantial amounts of deposition collected in the swamp snowpack over winter and not released until spring snowmelt. The first model uses average daily temperature and daily precipitation depth to estimate the accumulation and melt of snowpack water equivalents over winter to spring. The second model uses empirically estimated exponential decay constants for each major chemical parameter in the snowpack to estimate changes in concentration over time (LaZerte, unpubl. results). Taken together, the two models provide daily chemical fluxes from the snowpack directly onto the swamp.

The outflow from the Pc 1 conifer swamp is monitored chemically at a well defined bedrock lip (Pc 1-03) which controls the water level of the swamp. The hydrologic discharge at this site is areally pro-rated against the discharge at the Pc 1 weir located about 50 m downstream. Chemical data from Pc 1-03 and hydrological data from Pc 1 are available from March 1983.

The V-notch weirs at Pc 1 and Pc 1-08 are established on a bedrock base with little evidence of leakage. The notches are heated to eliminate ice buildup and provide year-round operation. The stage/discharge relations of the weirs are individually calibrated using Pygmy meters in standard reaches (high flow) or buckets (low flow). The stage is continuously monitored in a heated stilling well using a float connected to a Leopold-Stevens A71 recorder. Daily discharge is computed from the digitized strip charts.

Samples were collected for chemical analyses more frequently during high flow periods (1-4 times per week in the spring and fall) than during low flow periods (once per week if water was available). All data was carefully examined for outliers using time trend plots and charge balance calculations. Linear interpolation was used to estimate the chemistry on days between sample collection. Sampling was frequent enough and discharge-concentration relationships weak enough that filling in missing data by interpolation was more accurate than using discharge-concentration relationships.

Chemical analyses were performed as described in OME (1983). All analyses were insensitive to DOC interference, including the ion chromatographic sulphate method. Aluminum species were estimated with a catechol violet / anion exchange method (LaZerte et al. 1988) and with the calculations described in LaZerte (1984). Oliver's model (Oliver et al. 1983) was used to estimate the organic anion contribution to charge balance. The model works well in these waters and elsewhere when corrected for iron and aluminum complexation (Oliver et al. 1983; LaZerte and Dillon 1984; Cantrell et al. 1990).

Alkalinity was both titrated to a fixed endpoint of pH 3.8 and calculated at surface water sites. At groundwater sites, alkalinity was only calculated. For these calculations, alkalinity was defined to include bicarbonate alkalinity as well as the alkalinity generating portion of inorganic Al and weak organic acids. The latter was estimated as that fraction of Oliver's model organic acid (Oliver et al. 1983) that contributes to alkalinity titrations down to a pH of 3.8 (Orgw). The formula for calculating this alkalinity follows from the proton balances of the individual acids that are as weak or weaker than the arbitrarily defined weak organic acids at pH 3.8 (Stumm and Morgan 1981):

$$H_20 = H^+ + OH^ HOrgw = H^+ + Orgw^ H_2CO_3 = H^+ + HCO_3^ H_2CO_3 = 2H^+ + CO_3^{2-}$$
 $Al(H_20)_6^{3+} + H_20 = H_30^+ + AlOH(H_20)_5^{2+}$
 $Al(H_20)_6^{3+} + H_20 = 2H_30^+ + Al(OH)_2(H_20)_4^+$ (the H_20 terms will be dropped below) etc.

which lead to:

(1) Alkalinity =
$$[Orgw^-] + 2[CO_3^2] + [HCO_3^-] + [AlOH^{2+}] + 2[Al(OH)_2^+] + 3[Al(OH)_3] + 4[Al(OH)_3^-] + [OH^-] - [H^+]$$

Al(OH)₃ includes monomeric, polymeric and colloidal forms that respond to the titration (see also the Appendix).

The start of each hydrological year was taken to be 1 September, before the fall rains began and when discharge from the swamp was usually zero. Input and output chemical fluxes per square metre of swamp surface were prepared on a daily basis and then quarterly and annual sums computed. Input and output volume weighted concentrations on a quarterly basis were calculated by dividing quarterly chemical flux by the equivalent quarterly water flux and adjusting for the swamp area.

ERRORS and METHOD CHECKS

A regression (with no intercept) of the quarterly discharge of the Pc 1-08 inflow after December 1986 against the Pc 1 weir gives an R² of 0.99 and a slope of 0.16±0.1 (2 S.E.). This slope compares favourably with the ratio of areas (0.15), confirming the use of areal pro-rating on a quarterly or annual basis for missing upland water fluxes. DeVito (1989) has also concluded that areal prorating works well in these catchments.

A comparison of the calculated alkalinity with an actual fixed end point alkalinity titration to pH 3.8 demonstrates an approximate 1:1 relationship (R²=0.81). A multiple linear regression of titrated alkalinity versus the three major components (with no intercept) also reveals approximate 1:1 relationships for each component:

Variable	Coefficient	S.E.	P
$2[CO_3^2] + [HCO_3^-] +$			
[OH ⁻] - [H ⁺]	0.94	0.02	0.0
[Orgw ⁻]	1.15	0.05	0.0
$[AlOH^{2+}] + 2[Al(OH)_{2}^{+}] +$			
$3[Al(OH)_3] + 4[Al(OH)_4]$	1.06	0.05	0.0

The first term is the traditional definition of (bicarbonate) alkalinity; in all of these samples, its major component is $[H^+]$ (see also the Appendix).

The major systematic error in these Pc 1 swamp budgets is probably the estimate of groundwater chemical concentrations. A rough estimate of this error can be obtained by comparing the total input fluxes to the swamp using Pc 1-08 stream chemistry for unmonitored areas (Table 1a) with fluxes using lysimeter chemistry (Table 2a) over the same period. The following slopes were obtained regressing (with no intercept) the Pc 1-08 estimate against the lysimeter estimate using the most recent four years of quarterly data where both estimates are available:

Variable	Coefficient	S. E.	P
Base Cations	0.91	0.01	0.0
Inorganic Al	0.85	0.02	0.0
H ⁺	1.09	0.01	0.0
Sulphate	0.93	0.01	0.0
Orgw ⁻	0.90	0.04	0.0
Other Anions	0.82	0.01	0.0

With the exception of H⁺, the Pc 1-08 estimates of unchannelized groundwater chemistry are lower than estimates based on lysimeter data. The errors appear to be on the order of 8% lower for base cations and sulphate and 10-18% lower for the other ions.

Charge balances on the quarterly input and output volume weighted concentrations average $-7\%\pm6\%$ (mean \pm standard deviation, n=30) and $-1\%\pm6\%$ respectively, with maximum deviations of -24% and +16% respectively, for the long term budgets using Pc 1-08 chemistry for unchannelized input fluxes (Table 3).

RESULTS

Base cations are the major cations entering the swamp with positively charged aluminum species and H⁺ also important (Figure 2; Tables 1a, 2a). Sulphate dominates the anion inputs with Orgw⁻, bicarbonate, chloride and nitrate of lesser significance (Figure 3; Tables

1a, 2a). The major inputs occur in the spring during snowmelt, with fall and occasionally early winter (December) influxes being somewhat important.

As chemical flux is the product of chemical concentration and water flux, changes in chemical flux are caused by changes in either one or both. Changes in surface water flux is a major determinant of the temporal pattern of chemical input flux to the swamp (Figure 4; Table 3; quarterly C.V.=86%). The volume weighted input concentrations are comparatively stable (Table 3; quarterly C.V. are 23% and 18% for base cations and sulphate respectively). On an annual basis, both total cation inputs and total anion inputs have maximum and minimum annual fluxes (1984/85 and 1986/87 respectively) that correspond to maximum and minimum annual water fluxes (Figures 2-3).

Base cations and sulphate also dominate the swamp outflow, but H⁺ is more important than inorganic aluminum cations and organic anions are more abundant (Figures 5-6; Tables 1a, 2a). Spring is very important to the output fluxes, but, in contrast to inputs and especially in the four years following the dry summers of 1983, 87, 88 and 89, Fall+Winter is even more important.

Summer drought conditions have a major impact on wetland chemical concentrations and consequently on chemical output fluxes. The average daily summer precipitation depth is correlated with the number of days with zero discharge from the Pc 1 swamp (Figure 7). A lowered water table and exposed muck soils are found during these periods of zero

discharge in the summer. In the years following an extended summer period of zero discharge, concentrations of most chemical parameters become elevated and, in particular, with the onset of fall rains the first flush of water from the swamp is very concentrated (Table 3; Figures 5-6; see also Kirchner et al. 1992, Figure 1). The variability of output water flux is similar to the inflow (Table 3; quarterly C.V.=88%), but the equally variable base cation and sulphate concentrations (Table 3; quarterly C.V.=68-82%) also have a substantial impact on the temporal variability of chemical fluxes from the swamp.

It is in the Fall+Winter quarters following the dry summers that the most substantial negative retentions (net export, Figures 8-9; Tables 1a, 2a) of base cations and sulphate occur. The annual pattern of sulphate and base cations is also revealing: only in the years following dry summers is there a net export of sulphate (negative retention). In all other years, including those years with the highest and lowest water fluxes through the swamp (1984/85 and 1986/87 respectively), sulphate is retained. Base cations are never positively retained on an annual basis (when using the Pc 1-08 estimate for ungauged area; Table 1a); they are approximately in balance after a normal summer and exported after drought, even through the highest and lowest water flux years. Clearly summer drought conditions have a substantial impact on the retention of these major ions, primarily by releasing large quantities of them in the subsequent fall and winter discharge periods.

The negative retention (net export) of H⁺ shows an annual pattern that may have as much to do with annual water flux as summer drought. Large spring net exports dominate its

annual budget. Although the pH drops dramatically, most of the fall export of sulphate following summer drought is balanced by base cations, not protons. Nonetheless, the three years of minimum proton export (Figure 8) do correspond to the three years of positive sulphate retention (Figure 9). The seasonal and annual retentions of aluminum cations, Orgw and other anions show less pattern, although the three latest drought years (Figure 8) do have elevated aluminum retentions relative to the three previous wet years.

H⁺ and aluminum hydroxide species are the two dominant components of alkalinity retention in the Pc 1 conifer swamp and consequently the temporal pattern of alkalinity retention is similar to theirs (Figure 10-11; Tables 1b, 2b). Annually, alkalinity is retained; only in the summer are small amounts of alkalinity exported (Figure 11; Tables 1b, 2b). This is the result of H⁺ retained from summer rainfalls and Orgw⁻ export. If the contribution of aluminum hydroxides and weak organics to alkalinity were ignored, the estimates of alkalinity retained by the swamp would be less but the pattern would be similar.

Net DOC fluxes from this peatland range from 21 to 43 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Tables 1a, 2a).

DISCUSSION

One of the most significant results of this research is the net export of base cations from the Pc 1 swamp over the current seven year study period. Other budget studies, although rare, indicate that both ombrotrophic and minerotrophic peatlands retain base cations (Hemond

1980; Gorham et al. 1984). The lack of base cation retention at this acidified site may be the result of competition for new exchange sites by incoming protons and aluminum ions. In the past, there may have been sufficient incoming base cations (and fewer competing protons and Al ions) to populate many of the sites. Under current conditions, however, with the loss of base cations and the increase of aluminum ions, the cation exchange sites in the swamp are likely becoming more acidified as predicted by Gorham et al. (1984) and Bayley et al. (1986).

Another important result is the greater retention of sulphate relative to base cations. Currently, the swamp retains sulphate during normal and wet summers, and then exports it after dry summers. A similar pattern has been observed in this swamp for phosphorus and nitrogen (Devito & Dillon 1992). It is likely that the exposure and oxidation of reduced sulphur compounds is responsible for these chemical fluctuations (Gorham et al. 1984; Bayley et al. 1986; Bayley et al. 1987; Urban et al. 1989b; DeVito & Dillon 1992); DeVito (unpubl. results) has documented increased rates of sulphur mineralization as the result of summer drought in Pc 1 swamp. This pulsed export of sulphate from the Pc 1 swamp is mostly balanced by an export of cations, presumably via an exchange reaction between the proton from the sulphur oxidation reaction and the base cations on the peat exchange sites. The retention of sulphate after wet summers, however, is not balanced by a retention of cations but by their reduced net export and, in part, by decreased proton export and increased aluminum retention. Geochemically, this is consistent with sulphate reduction increasing peat pH which reduces proton export but increases aluminum precipitation or

absorption. Eventually, if current conditions persist, the exchangeable pool of base cations in the swamp will be depleted by the periodic export of sulphate and more protons and some aluminum ions will be exported to compensate. This will increase acidity export (alkalinity retention) primarily by directly increasing the proton export and indirectly reducing Orgw export.

Net sulphate retention has been observed in other peatlands as has post-drought release (Hemond 1980; Gorham et al. 1984 and references therein; Bayley et al. 1986; Urban et al. 1989b), but no investigator, to my knowledge, has reported an annual net export of sulphate (or of base cations) from a minerotrophic peatland. Bayley et al. (1986) hypothesize that, other conditions being equal, peatlands with historically less anthropogenic sulphur deposition should currently have greater base cation neutralization capacity and hence less proton export coupled with sulphate export. Their results and this study both support this hypothesis.

The retention of alkalinity observed in this study is not unexpected. Urban et al. (1989a) have documented the role of peatland organic acid exports in the acidification of stream water. In the Pc 1 swamp, organic acids increase the acidity of already acidified water passing through the swamp (LaZerte and Dillon 1984). This is especially the case in wet years (e.g., 87/88; Tables 1a, 2a) when the relative proportion of organic anions to sulphate anions in the swamp outflow approaches one. Conversely, after dry summers the large release of sulphate from the swamp reduces the relative importance of organic acids. More

generally, the increased acidity of water passing through the swamp may be the result of high water yield (4-7 m of water m⁻² of swamp yr⁻¹) which increases organic acid leaching from many peatlands, although the total and net flux (21 to 43 g m⁻² yr⁻¹) of organic carbon from the wetland is not unusual (Urban et al. 1989a). Another likely cause is the gradual loss of exchangeable base cations from the Pc 1 conifer swamp; these base cations would neutralize some of the internally generated organic acidity as well as mineral acidity from sulphur oxidation.

More detailed study is required to determine the exact layers of peat involved in the cycle of sulphate accumulation and export, and whether these same layers are also responsible for the cation export. Presumably reduced sulphur is immobile and can only be exported when swamp water levels drop to the point where oxygen can diffuse to its location. However, the protons released by sulphur oxidation are mobile, and it may be that the depth of peat available for proton/cation exchange is greater than that available for the sulphur oxidation. In addition, possible internal sources of base cations diffusing up from deep sediments (as has been postulated for iron; LaZerte 1991) should be considered. Similarly, the role of different regions of the swamp (e.g., the Pc 1-08 lagg on the eastern side of the swamp; see DeVito & Dillon 1992) should be examined. The crucial question is the amount of residual sulphur available and the size of cation storage in the swamp available to neutralize these pulsed sulphur oxidation events.

Climatic changes in temperature and rainfall have been shown to influence lake chemistry in unexpected ways (Webster et al. 1990; Psenner and Schmidt 1992). With respect to peatland behaviour, it may nonetheless be possible to extrapolate the effects of the drought conditions observed in this and other studies (e.g., Bayley et al. 1986) to wetland behaviour under the longer-term reduced rainfall conditions predicted for some regions. It should be emphasized that only long-term studies can provide the perspective and data needed for long term predictions.

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APPENDIX - ALKALINITY METHOD

In alkalinity as defined here, the fixed pH 3.8 endpoint is arbitrary, but it does happen to be the pH in the Oliver model (Oliver et al. 1983) where 50% of the organic acids are dissociated and also where all carbonates are protonated and inorganic aluminum is not hydrolysed. Both Cantrell et al. (1990) and Urban et al. (1989a) recommend such a fixed endpoint alkalinity titration when organic acids and aluminum hydrolysis species are important. Hemond (1990) has presented an alternative approach that uses a simple correction factor applied to Gran alkalinity titrations in the presence of DOC; but it is unclear how titratable aluminum species would be corrected for.

Setting the reference proton level for the alkalinity titration to this level (3.8) implies that the dissociation of carbonic acid and HOrgw and the hydrolysis of $Al(H_20)_6^{3+}$ are alkalinity neutral: their addition to or subtraction from solution does not change the alkalinity (Stumm and Morgan 1981) although the pH may change. However, the dissolution of calcium bicarbonate and aluminum trihydroxide do increase alkalinity by an amount equivalent to the introduction.

Others have defined alkalinity differently (e.g., Reuss and Johnson 1986; Hemond 1990):

(2) Alkalinity = C_B - C_A (Sum strong base cations - Sum strong acid anions)

Then using charge balance, they obtain:

(3) Alkalinity =
$$[Org^-] + 2[CO_3^{2-}] + [HCO_3^-] + [Al(OH)_4^-] + [OH^-] - [H^+] - 3[Al^{3+}] - 2[AlOH^{2+}] - [Al(OH)_2^+]$$

where [Org] is the concentration of ALL dissociated organic acids, both weak and strong as defined above. Thus, the dissociation of the strong organic acids at pHs less than 3.8 do not reduce alkalinity in this formulation (3) whereas they would in (1). Also, it is the dissolution of $Al(OH)_3$ that is alkalinity neutral, not the hydrolysis of Al^{3+} . Although this definition (2) is close to (1) for bicarbonate waters, it does not agree well with the usual "alkalinity" titration with strong acid in the laboratory or in the field when inorganic aluminum, organic acids or $CaCO_3^\circ$ are abundant. Even though the organic acid discrepancy can be corrected by including the strong acid portion in C_A , a more difficult problem with the charge balance approach (2) is that it does not account for the weak acidic hydrolysis of positively charged metals (e.g., Al^{3+}), nor does it handle any uncharged species that may contribute to alkalinity such as $CaCO_3^\circ$ or $Al(OH)_3$. As noted by Morel (1983):

"Although convenient, the conceptualization of alkalinity as a charge balance is not strictly correct; the proper concept is that of an acid-base balance."

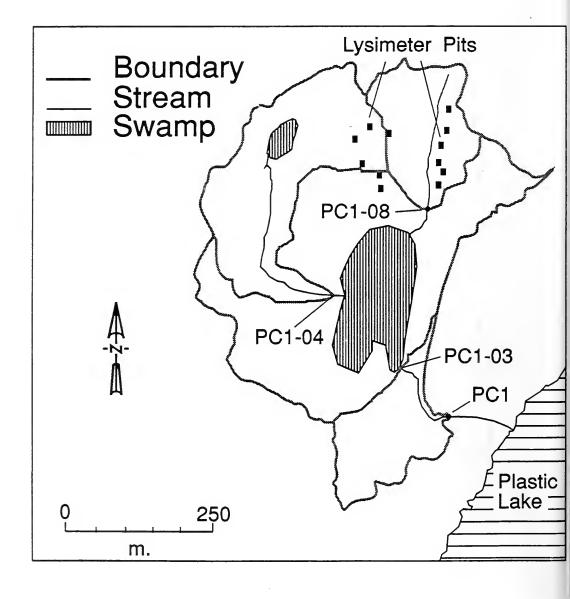
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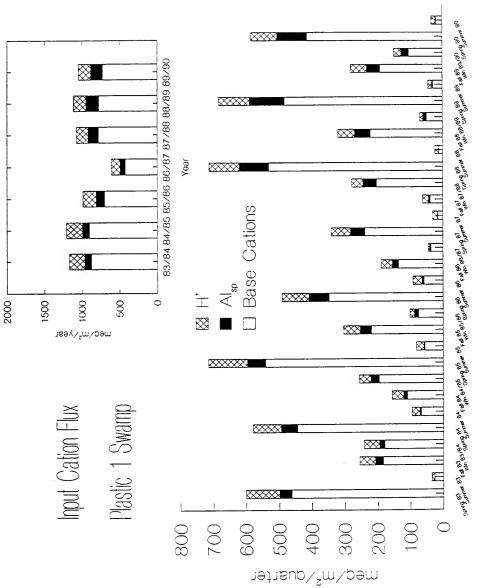
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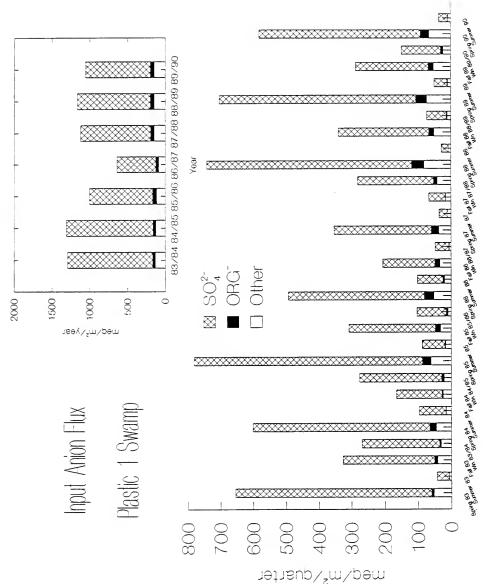
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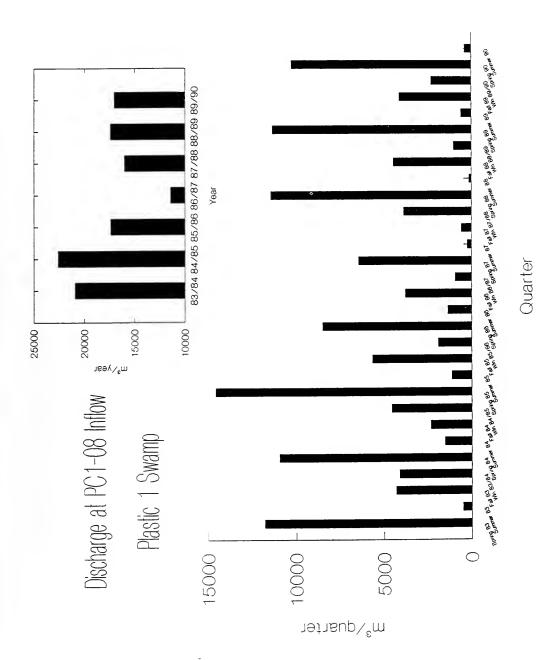
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concentrat Protons	z	28	30	32	38	56	36	38	28	27	42	58	56	31	39	27	8	53	9	51	32	27	62	33	31	58	36	33	34	52	25	30		31	3 6	30	30	31	30	30
6			51	307	98	131	75	159	174	119	22	122	175	131	96	127	153	114	30	525	326	8	27	243	346	151	74	320	522	1	82	89		175	8	128	116	215	183	208
/olume weigh 3ase Cations						135								131																	80	53		131	127	122	Ξ	153	140	132
Period B		Spring 83	Summer 83		Vin 83/84	Spring 84	Summer 84	all 84	Vin 84/85	Spring 85	Summer 85	-all 85	Vin 85/86	Spring 86	Summer 86	all 86	28/9	Spring 87	Summer 87	-ell 87	2/88	Spring 88	Summer 88	ell 88	Win 88/89	Spring 89	Summer 89	-all 89	Win 89/90	Spring 90	Summer 90						_		88/89	_



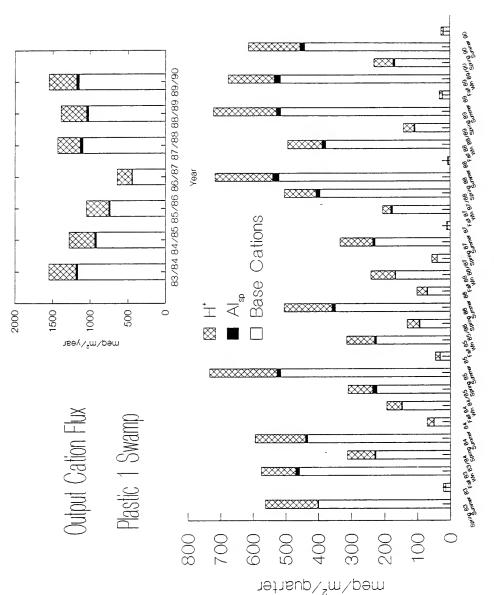




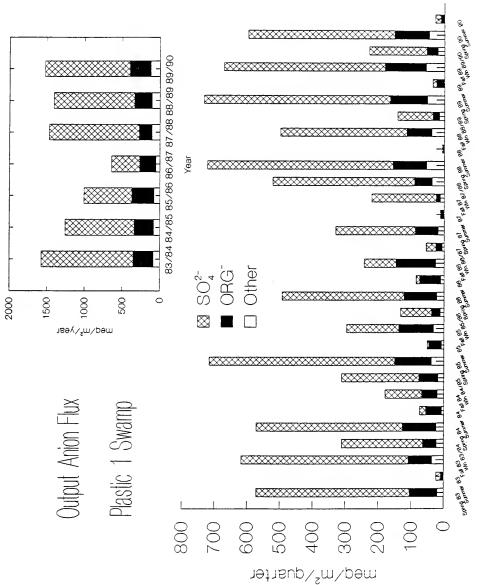












Plastic 1 Swamp

